1:Stanford U, S-4, 5 1956 AF16 SW China AF16

162 4. A separate survey conducted during January-June 1947 in two large cities in this region further indicated that the age of fathers at the birth of first child was 20-35, and for mothers, 20-25. The mortality rate was highest in the 0-5 and 50-60 age groups. Pulmonary and typhoid diseases took the heaviest toll.'

III. INTERNAL MIGRATION

• 166 The Southwest Region is singular in China's history of internal migration in that it has seen two large-scale migrations into this region within the past five hundred years. The first mass migration took place when the population of Szechwan Province was nearly exterminated during the chaos that marked the end of the Ming Dynasty (circa A.D. 1640). The succeeding authorities decreed migrations from Hunan and Hupeh provinces east of this region and encouraged voluntary migration from any area by promising land to the settlers. Over 1,700,000 settlers were recorded in the period[14] 1667-1707.

[722] The second mass migration occurred after the 1937 Japanese invasion of China, when a huge number of people fled the northern and the coastal provinces west of this region. The latter migration is discussed in Chen Ta's Population of Modern China, which includes an analysis of

14. Lou Yün-lin, op. cit., p. 36.

•166 the influence of more technically advanced easterners on the life of the local population. The first migration restocked the population in the Southwest Region; the second migration was less permanent, with the majority of the migrants returning to their native places upon the conclusion of World War II. However, not a few of these easterners have remained and made their homes in this region.

166 178 After 1949, the Communist program of industrialization concentrated upon the Northeast and Central South regions, but this does not mean that the Southwest Region is totally neglected. Many of the industrial establishments temporarily arranged to house the plants evacuated from the north and the east during the Sino-Japanese War have been retained and brought into the master plan for development of this region. Of 156 major industrial units involved in the Chinese Communists' first Five-Year Plan, over 19 per cent are located in this region.[15] The two steel plants in Chungking, the tin mining center in Yunnan Province, and the ordnance plant in Chengtu are undoubtedly attracting many workers and contributing to the rapid increase in population in such centers.

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15. Jen-min Shou-ts'e [People's Handbook], Tientsin, Ta-kung pao, 1955.

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF16 SW China AF16

166 Among the large construction projects which have been drawing thousands of people into this region are the Szechwan-Sikang and Sikang-Tibet highways, both reported to have been opened to traffic in the summer of 1954. The railway between Chungking and Chengtu in Szechwan Province has been completed, but another rail line connecting Szechwan Province with the north is still under construction. In addition, the Communists have been organizing people from more crowded places to settle on the grasslands and in mountain valleys in northwestern Szechwan and the western part of former Sikang Province. Reports are available in the Communist press on the progress of new villages where recent settlers are "making the barren mountains bloom." Although the dimensions of these organized migrations cannot be measured, reports couched in general terms should at least suggest one of the population trends in this region.

1280 A.D.) dynasties. In the Ch'ing (1644-1912 A.D.) dynasty more than 200,000 Han Chinese went to Sikang as refugees, criminals, laborers, and adventurers. Shortly after 1910, about 70,000 to 80,000 Han Chinese went from Szechwan to Sikang as merchants. Pa-an (Pa-t'ang), at the center of the province, and K'ang-ting, in the eastern part of the province, have more Han Chinese than other cities in Sikang.[5]

C. Yunnan

The first Han Chinese invasion into Yunnan took place in 225 A.D. during the period of the Three Kingdoms (221-266 A.D.). The next Han-Chinese attack during the T'ang dynasty was repulsed by a powerful Thai people organized as the Tali Kingdom of Nan Chao. This kingdom, however, was conquered by the army of Kublai Khan in 1253. The most important campaigns undertaken by the Han Chinese in Yunnan occurred in the Ming (1368-1644) and early Ch'ing dynasties. Some large families in Central

3. Lou, Yun-lin, Sze-ch'uan [Szechwan], Shanghai, Chung-hua shu-chu, 1941, pp. 35-36.

4. It is said that this policy of the Manchu government was pursuant to rebel Chang Hsien-chung's wanton killing in Szechwan at the end of the Ming dynasty which had nearly depleted the population there. See chapter on Historical Background.

5. Ch'en, Chung-wei Hsi-k'ang Wen-ti [The Sikang Problem], Shanghai, Chung-hua shu-chu, 1930, pp. 85-90.

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF 16 SW China AF16

575 of people from East China into Southwest China during the war with Japan, the Ch'ing-pang organization was extended to the Southwest as well.

II. DISRUPTION OF THE TRADITIONAL SOCIAL STRUCTURE

178

Just as the scholar ideal and the family ideal helped to preserve the stability of the total social order of China, so did the disintegration of the traditional family system and the abolition of the imperial examination system for recruiting the ruling elite become contributing factors in the dislocation of the traditional social structure.

178 369 565 The traditional rural village community consisted of farm laborers at the bottom and landlords at the top. Peasant landowners and tenants constituted the bulk of the village population; village peddlers, merchants, and artisans were members of peasant families, most of whom owned land; the village gentry, that is to say, the local leaders, were mostly retired officials or educated members of landlords' or rich peasants' families.[10]

178 369 166 However, the growth of rural population without a comparable increase in arable land together with more opportunity for employment

10. Olga Lang, Chinese Family and Society, New Haven, Yale University Press, 1946, p. 68.

178 in the cities caused the migration of some peasants
369 to the urban centers. The continued high premium
166 placed on learning, practical or otherwise, induced the wealthier rural inhabitants to send their children to modern city schools which offered new opportunities. Thus, the cities became the centers from which the forces of change radiated into the surrounding countryside.

Some of the rural immigrants became permanent residents in the cities; others returned to their home villages. Among the permanent residents, some left their families in the country while others brought their immediate families (wives and children) to the cities. In either case, it meant the breaking up of family and clan relations. Industrial work and other city employment changed the outlook of these rural people; new professions such as modern medicine, law, engineering, and banking attracted the attention of those who would otherwise have been occupied
178 in the study of the Confucian Classics. This
871 was especially true after Confucian training had been found "impractical" and not in keeping with changing conditions. Education in the secondary schools and colleges, however inadequate and artificial it might seem, was designed for better citizenship.[11] Their curricula opened a new and different world, far more interesting

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11. Hu Shih, The Chinese Renaissance (the Haskell Lectures, University of Chicago, 1933) Chicago, Univ. of Chicago Press, 1934. Teng and Fairbank, loc. cit.

7: Hu K-5 (1934-) 1946 AF16 Southwest China AF16

CHAPTER I

SZECHUAN BASIN IN TRANSITION

121 The primary objective of this dissertation is a critical geographical evaluation of the agricultural and forestry land use of Szechuan Basin. Throughout the study emphasis has been placed on first, a presentation of the most characteristic features of the Basin, and second, a correlation of cultural life, especially agricultural and forestry land use practices, with the major natural elements of the Basin. Attention also is directed to the unique qualities which made the Basin a vital unit in China's resistance to invasion by the Japanese and to the growing significance in China's evolving economy.

131 Szechuan Basin is one of the large and distinctive regions of China. Surrounded by lofty mountain ranges and unique in its cultural development, the Basin is a clear-cut geographic unit. It has a mild, humid climate, fertile soil, a diversity of agricultural products, abundant mineral resources, and numerous important forestry, horticultural, and animal products. Szechuan Basin may be justly said to be the most self-sufficient region of China. In fact, by virtue of the great diversity of its products, the Basin is almost a miniature model of all China. It is an empire within an empire.

175 Szechuan Basin is an ancient land from the standpoint of human occupation and utilization. Aside from the upper Yellow River Valley provinces, Szechuan Basin was the earliest area of China to be settled. The first organized Chinese migration into the Basin took place in the fifth century B.C. As early as the feudal Chin period (360-251 B.C.), the Basin had already begun to assume considerable economic-geographic importance in China's national life, a role which has increased in importance since that time.

●166 On account of its central geographic position (in relation to the surrounding land-locked provinces of southwest China), the Basin has received greatly diversified groups of emigrants from

7: Hu K-5 (1934-) 1946 AF16 Southwest China AF16

166 the neighboring provinces of interior China. The influx of these heterogeneous groups of immigrants brought with it many ideas and practices to help in the adjustment of the people to their new environment, particularly in connection with agricultural and forestry land use. This fact helps to explain the present heterogeneity of the agricultural landscape of the Basin.

463 439 Agriculture and forestry are the outstanding features of the economy of the Szechuan Basin. Approximately 85 per cent of the people gain their livelihood from agricultural pursuits. In terms of exports from the Basin, however, the leading item, Tung oil, is a forest product. Most of the other exports are either agricultural or forestry products.

241 312 In so far as agricultural land use is concerned, nowhere else in China except in Szechuan Basin does one find terraced fields so extensively, elaborately, and finely made, and irrigation systems so greatly diversified and ingeniously devised. The Basin is almost literally a country of "millions of minute steps" and a land of "thousands of small ditches." The terraced fields and the irrigation ditches, together with the hard-working peasantry have helped to transform the otherwise hostile rugged Szechuan Basin into a smiling garden.

Other unique features of the Basin's agricultural land use include the age-old but the recently much publicized Tung Shui Tien (winter storage water field) system; the cultivation of Tsai Seng Tao (double-growth) variety rice; the numerous special methods of soil culture, fertilization, composting, and crop rotations; and the various elaborate systems of inter-culture and synchronization of crops.

133 As has been implied, the Basin is a natural unit. Its combination of surface, climate, soil, and drainage is unlike that of any other part of China. In large measure, the interior of the Basin within the mountainous border is made up of hill country which varies from hilly areas of low relief in the south to the fairly high parallel anticlinal ridges in the east and to a border of complex hills at the north. Near the western edge of the Basin, the hills give way to the Chengtu Plain, a broad piedmont alluvial plain, the most productive part of the Basin.

132 Climatically, the Basin has a phase of the "humid subtropical" type of climate.[1] The Basin extends from latitude 28

[1] G. Trewartha, An Introduction to Weather and Climate, Plate I, 1937.

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872 each pupil bellowed. "If he doesn't bellow, he isn't learning, but chattering or making mischief."

The mandarin pays for the upkeep of this school. The children live and eat in the castle and bring only their sleeping blankets and in winter a coal brazier from home. "The lessons are conducted according to the new Western style," the teacher told me. Every hour there was a short pause and every day there was physical exercise. If the teacher wanted to begin or interrupt the lessons he drummed on a hollow tree trunk, just like a South Sea Islander.

241 166 The mandarin was also obliged to distribute seeds to the Chinese immigrants; and because the last few years there had been poor harvests he had to order tsamba from Dawo and Romi Tschanggu and rice from the city of Ya tschou. (1) Otherwise all the colonists would have

1. The price for barley in Tschanggu was exactly 15 times as much as in Hsining fu.

long since gone home to China. The colonization here, unlike that of Mongolia, is sponsored by the government. A few years ago 100 families were established here; they had land as well as free seeds, schools for their children and complete freedom from taxes for the first years. And yet conditions were so unfavorable that more than half of them had already gone back and there were only 40 Chinese families left.

651 From the Tibetan families the mandarin gets free escort (ula) and compulsory military service, besides 2.5 Candareen (tael cents) a year. Thus, his income is slight and during each meal Wu da lao ye complained when it came to the rice and rice wine that in this post he had to supply a great deal (presumably 2,000 taels annually).

353 The hall in which my first reception had taken place was also the dining hall where the mandarin, his first secretary, the teacher and /Plates XLV, XLVI, XLVII and XLVIII appear between pp. 192 and 193 in the original text./ /193/ I were served. (1) Already in

[262] 1. Wu tschin hsü Da lao ye had even had Chinese pigs brought from the lowlands for slaughtering because he thought the Tibetan species which is raised throughout Hor in large quantities, was too fleshy and tasted bad. The Hor Tibetans eat their pork sometimes raw and sometimes cooked.

Tibetan times it had been a room for festive occasions. On the paneling of the walls and ceiling were painted garlands of flowers and hunting scenes in fiery colors. During the meal Tibetans who had some kind of request, were admitted. Scarcely were they inside when they threw themselves on the floor and the Chinese interpreter reported their request. It was seldom that the petitioners dared raise an objection. After the mandarin had curtly given his reply they murmured a feeble "O laso! laso!", bowed their heads, closed their eyes, lifted their hands, pressing the palms together, to their foreheads and again lowered their heads to the dirty floor. This was also the way the interviews of the poorer Tibetan aristocracy were conducted, which angered these people very much.

The floor plan of the castle in Tschanggu resembled the manor house of Puiling, except that the proportions were larger. The building is rectangular with a flat roof of loam, and has four wings that are built around an inner court. There are five stories, all of which are supported by trunks of spruce. Only the strong outer wall is made of stone and in it there are only a few small windows in the fifth story. In times of distress, half the tribe with women and children could be housed there. This building, like all Tibetan houses, has no foundation walls. The walls are built around the many wooden supports and beams of the interior, just as a tent wall is erected, and are not held in place in the ground.

The village of Tschanggu clusters around the manor house at the edge of the slope. Many of its houses lay in ruins, those that are left are inhabited by Chinese. These people, colonists, whom the Manchu government has transplanted here, mostly have Tibetan wives and the style of architecture is completely Tibetan. The town looked peaceful but ugly. The colonists had planted vegetable beds out of which rose stone ruins, testifying to recent wars and suffering.

The Tschanggu monastery is not more than 15 minutes away from the castle. The temples and the upper story of the priests' dwellings are built of wooden beams, as is common in South Tibet, and everything is nicely painted in gay colors. The entire grounds are surrounded by a low wall. (Plate XLVI). It seems designed more to maintain order and decorum among the inhabitants than as a defense against armed enemies. On a hunting trip I also happened to become acquainted with the convent of Tschanggu, which is only a few kilometers distant in a lateral ravine. It houses over a hundred nuns in miserable huts. No gold roofs make it visible from afar, no wall protects the huts from the outside. The nuns do not seem to do as good